

AVIATION

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Action picture of a Whirlwind powered tapered wing Waco.

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Tractors in Airport Building
1928 Airplane and Engine Production
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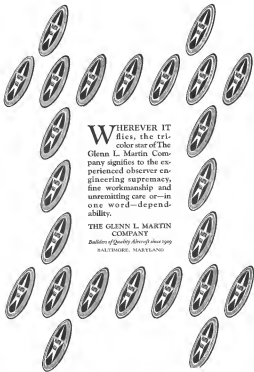
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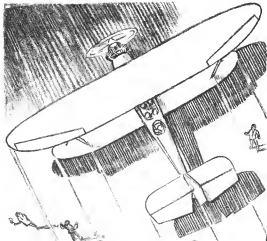


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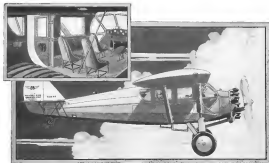
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Vol. XXVI

MARCH 9, 1929

No. 10

Changing Terminology

THIS N. A. A. form of accident report which is illustrated in our issue of February 16 sets at naught the classifications of the causes of accidents the usual spin. It is pointed out by one of our correspondents that it would have been better to have said the word "spin". He points out that every accident is really the result of a stall and that this would have been the better word to use.

As a matter of fact it is our belief that tail spins, as well as designed conventional spins, are not such frequent causes of accidents as to deserve a separate classification. Many conventional spins cannot be spun except by an expert pilot using all his power and full controls, and most conventional spins will come out of a spin immediately after the controls are put in a normal position. Therefore accidents due to spinning with conventional planes will be rare. With military planes the spin probably will long remain a source of danger.

With the improvement in the design of planes, however, a distinction will have to be made between stalling and what is commonly called "spinning". Stalling in old types of planes inevitably resulted in a spin. In a modern design a stall results in the plane pitching forward and recovering once control at the controls is used. It has required sufficient flying speed to make the controls effective. If the ground gets in the way too soon there is a crash up. Planes are being developed, however, so fast they will not get their nose at the ground unless the controls are used very violently, and the plane is put in a position where it must either whip nose down or flip backward. These planes will settle on an even keel and with effective control even though they have gone far beyond the stalling point. If the ground is close while they are still settling a crash up results, which though largely absorbed by the undercarriage, may prove completely fatal to the plane. The advance in the design of planes evidently recognizes the use of a new terminology, and more better word than "spinning" should be developed for the status or disability of setting rapidly, while on an even keel.

A Double Lesson

IT WAS to be expected that Lindbergh would fly again as soon as possible after his recent accident with Mrs. Morrow at Mexico City. Not only was the accident also automatic of his springing spirit but it was also perfect good psychology. Long years ago it was found that it was best to recommend a horse after being thrown and the same applies to a plane.

The other lesson is that more attention should be paid to wheels and landing gear. Wheels came off as fre-

quently as wheels and tires used to come off the early automobiles. The writer has seen one come off and has also been up in a plane when one came off and he can assure his readers that it is a most unpleasant sensation to be flying around knowing that the pilot may land on one wheel. Ultimately, a substitute probably will be adopted for wheels as far as airplanes are concerned, but in the meantime mechanics and others should examine them carefully from time to time and make sure that everything is as it should be.

Blind Flying Instruction

FLYING blind through fog and cloud by day and by night has developed in this country, from the operations of the air mail and there is no doubt that more of it has and is being done in this country than at any other part of the world. American civil pilots taught themselves to fly by instruments not because they wanted to, but because they had to, and the development of the instruments and the use of them developed simultaneously. As a result of our having proper instruments when they learned, originally, really old-time pilots, with the exception of mail pilots, distrust their instruments. There are, again, very experienced pilots who even today cannot fly blind even with the best of instruments. They and many others consider flying blind as an art which can only be learned by long experience and by much flying under weather conditions that the experienced pilot of mature years is not willing to risk.

To a certain extent this is true, but on the other hand the proper use of instruments can be demonstrated and even practiced without danger. Any one who has taken the tests with the Cessna Vee-see device will realize that his senses are not to be trusted as much as are the instruments. In the better schools of advanced gliding instruction there are dual control machines with a hood arranged over the student's head so that he can see nothing but his instruments. The student is thus forced to fly by instruments, yet at the same time there is no danger as the instructor can check controls. Even take-offs are practiced with the pilot under a hood. It often takes an experienced pilot almost as long to fly by instrument with comfort and precision as it does for a novice to learn to fly at all.

This hooded flying does not, of course, make an experienced blind flyer any more than practicing lessons make us wiser, but it does help. It would seem as if they might be worth while both to them and to a school so give further into the art of flying in thick and murky weather. Many pilots, of course, prefer to fly through clouds when there is a reasonable ceiling between the clouds and the earth, but this may be dangerous and is not to be recommended when carrying passengers.

1928 Airplane and Engine Production

By R. SIDNEY BOWEN, JR.

IF ORDER to conduct a 1928 airplane and engine survey, which, before it is at all, has resulted in a 100 per cent return of questionnaires, on one takes as being 95 per cent correct, it was necessary to subject to the request of several manufacturers and keep them with them in the matter of refraining from publishing the production figures together with the names of their individual manufacturers. Therefore, names will be omitted and we will deal exclusively with totals and percentages of various types of planes and engines for the country as a whole and also for different groups of states according to geographical location. Before carrying on with this



Front quarter view of a Vickers powered Monomorph.

discourse on "facts and figures" the writer would like to express his appreciation and thanks for the splendid co-operation of the manufacturers, and the hope that, should they peruse this somewhat detailed report of last year's production, they will consider that we have "kept the faith," and perhaps derive from it a salient information of value as to make them willing to extend a similar amount of co-operation next year.

And so to the task at hand.

Commercial airplane production for 1928 was almost 300 per cent greater than commercial production for 1927. To be exact there were 3602 commercial planes produced in 1928 as against 1354 commercial planes manufactured in 1927. On the other hand, however, the gain of 1928 military production over 1927 military production was less than 100 per cent. In 1927 there were 621 military planes produced and in 1928 the total was increased to 924. Thus, the grand total of all types produced in 1927 was 1975 and the grand total for 1928 was 4526, or an increase of slightly over 223 per cent.

Engine production figures can't be confined to 1928 alone, for, inasmuch as we have been able to find out, there are no exact figures on 1927 commercial and military en-

gine production. In 1928, however, there were 2,556 commercial engines built, including about 160 rebuilt engines, and 2003 military engines built, including 500 rebuilt engines. That makes the grand total of 4,559 engines, or almost one engine for every airplane. A point of interest to be noted here is that there were about one and one half commercial airplanes built in 1928 for every commercial engine, whereas there were about two military engines built in 1928 for every military plane. Engine production percentages figure out to be commercial engines 35 per cent, and military engines 45 per cent.

By classifying engine production according to horsepower we get the following production figures for 1928:

HP	100-125 hp.	125-150 hp.	Over 150 hp.	Money
1927	157	1,344	413	\$100
1928	167	1,344	413	\$100

It will be noted that the greatest number of commercial engines produced in 1928 were in the 50-150 hp. class. Of this number, which represents about 40 per cent of the entire commercial production, at least 70 per cent were engines designed for the replacing of the famous OX5. Another note of interest is, that of 25 companies manufacturing commercial engines, four companies produced 75 per cent of the total production. There were five military engine manufacturers producing in 1928 and of that number one produced 30 per cent. With regard to commercial and military engine production according to state, it is worthy of mention that of 10 states in which commercial engines were manufactured, two states



A Wright "Whirlwind" engine H-30.

(Connecticut and New Jersey) produced 56 per cent. And in the same way military engines were made, two states (Illinois and New Jersey) produced 66 per cent of the total.

To go back to airplane production, it has not been mentioned as yet that of the total number of planes, both military and commercial, 78 per cent were commercial craft and the remaining 22 per cent military craft.



Left: Side view of a Consolidated training plane.



Right: An OX5 powered Curtiss "Robin."

As there has been considerable discussion pro and con as to whether or not the trend of modern engine design is toward the monoplane, perhaps the following may be of some value as a little interest.

In 1928 there were 2044 airplanes constructed, 1143 monoplanes, and 884 biplanes, which includes 35 amphibians and 8 flying boats. Figuring the percentages we get 406 for the biplanes, 245 for the monoplanes and 409 for the water craft. Thus it will be noted that there were over two airplanes made for every monoplane. By classifying the airplanes and monoplanes according to type we get the following 1928 production figures:

Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit	Single engine open cockpit
1927	1928	1927	1928	1927	1928	1927	1928
157	167	1,344	1,344	413	413	1,344	1,344

As the above table shows, the leading type of plane from a production standpoint was the single engine open, biplane. The next in line was the single engine monoplane, and the next the single engine open quad plane. Bringing the next-to-last and much used percentages into play again we find that 60 per cent of the total commercial production was covered by the single engine open biplane, and that 25 per cent of the total commercial production was made up of single engine open monoplanes. Thus it will be seen that for each plane of the leading monoplane type manufactured there were almost three planes of the leading biplane type manufactured. Whatever that proves, if anything, is left to the opinion of the reader. But before forming any opinion regarding type sales possibilities, etc., we suggest that the question at once be given the consideration.

One item regarding the manufacture in aircraft that has brought forth comment from the interested and uninterested alike, is the number of manufacturers here as being engaged in the art of producing airplanes. Over one has lost some 183 companies. However, only 320 of these actually produced one or more planes in 1928.



Left: A Travel Air biplane fitted with a Warner "Scram." Right: A "Wasp" powered Pugh "Corona."

That figure of 320 does not of course include the various scrapers that took place last year. Each airplane company has been regarded as a separate manufacturing organization.

The point of interest, though, is that although the number of actual producing companies is only 320, those of them produced 76 per cent of the entire commercial production for the year. There were but nine companies that produced military planes in 1928 and of that number two companies produced 48 per cent of the military planes made.

Two States Produce 42 Per Cent

As regards commercial and military production by states, it is of interest to note that of the 48 states in which commercial airplanes were manufactured, two states (Kansas and Ohio) produced 42 per cent. And that in five states where military planes were produced, one state (New York) produced 63 per cent, of the total number of military planes.

Production figures and percentages for the various types of aircraft and engines according to the geographical location of the manufacturers may prove interesting for all those who may share a "hardy" sense of the United States. Therefore we have endeavored to compile the following information.

First it is necessary for us to designate the various states that are involved under each territory grouping.

The New England Group consists of Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island.

The Middle Atlantic Group consists of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware and District of Columbia.

The South Atlantic Group consists of Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Florida.

The Middle Western Group consists of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.



The South Western Group consists of Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas, New Mexico and Arizona. The Central Northwestern Group consists of Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Colorado, Wyoming and Montana. And the Pacific Coast Group consists of California, Nevada, Utah, Idaho, Oregon and Washington.

Taking biplane production figures we have the following:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

As will be noted from the above table the Central North Western Group is far in the lead in the total number of biplanes produced. Without revealing any state secret we might make mention of the fact that Colorado and Kansas were largely responsible for that figure of 1518 planes.

The monoplanes figures may prove to be equally interesting and are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

New England was not in the running as regards the production of monoplanes and the like which went to



An DKS powered American Eagle biplane.

the Middle Western Group. The states of Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin played a most active part in making a total figure of 439 for that group.

The flying boat figures prove to be few and far between, approximately speaking. They are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%



A W.E. Parker F30 powered with three Pratt & Whitney "Wasp" engines.

The most powerful are true for the amphibian figures which are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

As will be noted, the Middle Atlantic Group had the monopoly on the amphibian situation, and of that group,



A Fairchild monoplane fitted with a "Whisper."

New York and New Jersey played the two leading parts. Purging totals of all types of commercial planes adapting to the various groups of states we find the following:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

By virtue of the fact that the Central North Western Group produced such a quantity of biplanes, it of course takes the lead in all type totals, with the Middle Western Group an easy second.

Military production figures by state groups are confined to two groups as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Of the blue ribbon winning Middle Atlantic Group, New York was by far the most productive state. And for the grand totals of both commercial and military planes we find that the Central North Western Group still holds the lead, (with the most decided help of Colorado and Kansas) regardless of the fact that not a



A "Wasp" engine powered Loening Cabin Amphibian.

single military plane was reported as having been manufactured in that territory. The results are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Although commercial and military plane production hovers next to parts west of the Mississippi River, commercial and military engine production hovers right next east of the big stream of water. Of the



"Whisper" powered Buell "Aerodrome."

three groups that figured prominently in the commercial production, two of them leader on the Atlantic Coast. The totals and percentages are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

It will of course be readily understood that New Jersey figured most conspicuously in the leading Middle Atlantic Group, and also that Connecticut played an equally important part in the New England group, and that Illinois led the Middle Western Group.

Military production figures by groups of states are somewhat a repetition of the commercial figures, with the exception that the South Atlantic, South Western and Pacific Coast groups joined the Central North Western Group by not being in the running at all. The figures for the entire lot of groups are as follows:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Here again the states of New Jersey, Connecticut and Illinois played the important parts in their respective groups.

However for both military and commercial engine production, by groups of states, are of course the same, as shown in the following grand totals:

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Whenever a group of members of the aeronautical industry get together it is almost an *old-time* but that the motto of the East vs. the West, as regards things aeronautical, will hold the attention of all for the time being.



Side view of an Alexander Engineering.

Therefore, if commercial and military plane and engine production can be isolated at such times, perhaps the following figures will help to strengthen some one's assertions.

In this particular table the Mississippi River has been taken as the dividing line.

Year Produced	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Middle Atlantic	South Atlantic	Central States	Pacific Coast
1928	11	1	11	11	11	11
%	100%	9%	100%	100%	100%	100%

In conclusion we might state, that from the standpoint of production of both commercial and military airplanes and engines, the year of 1928 was most gratifying. Particularly because of the fact that commercial production was increased to such an extent, and also because of the fact that replacements for the war surplus engines were produced in such increasing quantities. When increase will be made in 1929 is a subject which creates more than a little discussion. Present estimates list one boom year



An Ireland amphibian fitted with a "Whisper."

from 8000 to 15,000 commercial planes, and corresponding estimates for military plane and commercial and military engine production. We would like to go on record as estimating a production increase for 1929 of about 60 per cent over 1928.

Research Laboratory at Stanford University

By ANDREW R. BOONE

THE aerodynamic laboratory of Stanford University, California, was installed during the winter of 1935-37 with the immediate purpose in view of providing equipment for the carrying on of an extended investigation on air propellers, the first stage of which was planned for 1937. With funds provided by the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, a wind tunnel was built in one of the existing buildings. A propeller dynamometer was constructed and an experimental research on 31 model airplane propellers was carried to completion. That was the first systematic investigation of the characteristics of air propellers conducted in this country and the most extensive single research ever undertaken in this field.

Since that time other researches have been undertaken and the laboratory now is engaged in a program of experimental research. This program, which follows, may be of interest before the laboratory and its equipment are completed.

1.—An experimental investigation of the performance characteristics of a series of five axial model propellers in a free air stream and in combination with a model VEE-9 airplane.

2.—An experimental investigation of air propellers in yaw. It is planned to conduct this investigation in a

series of United States Navy standard models at angles from zero to 20 deg.

3.—An experimental investigation of the rotational velocity of the slip of air propellers. It is planned first to determine the resistance in the operation of a series of U. S. Navy standard model propellers and then to investigate the effect of streamlining vanes upon the power absorbed and efficiency.

4.—An experimental and theoretical investigation of the losses of dissymmetric airflow. It is desired to formulate criteria which will enable the prediction of the departure of stream flow from the surface of an airfoil or streamlined body.

5.—An experimental investigation of the induced drag of high aspect ratio airfoils. It is intended to test airfoils having aspect ratios from six to 15 and to compare the results with the predictions of the Lanchester-Pronski theory.

6.—An experimental investigation of the profile drag of section airfoils. A special form of airfoil has been devised by which it is believed the profile drag may be measured directly with a balance. An airfoil will be tested at a number of angles of attack to determine if experimental evidence supports the theory involved.

The present wind tunnel, like the first, is of the Eiffel type. Except for detailed specifications, it is generally comparable the first. This type consists essentially of three elements: collector, diffuser and experiment chamber. At the end of the

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diffuser is located an exhaust fan which draws the air through the diffuser and delivers it to the room in which the tunnel is located.

This draft of air from the diffuser may be viewed as producing a reduced pressure in the experiment room, which is positively air-tight otherwise except for the entrance through the collector. In answer to the depression (difference of pressure between the experiment room and that in the surrounding room on the outside), the air flows in through a nozzle, in through a collector, across the experiment room and to the rear mouth of the diffuser, and thence on to the fan. The column of air thus flowing through the experiment room is then available for aerodynamic investigation.

The cross section was taken circular and the diameter of the throat of the present tunnel is 8 ft. Aside from structural details, the chief problems in the design of the wind tunnel related to the forms of the collector and the diffuser.

At the end of the diffuser and just before reaching the propeller exhaust fan, the form of the diffuser is slightly modified by bringing the curve of cross-section area in slightly so that the area is sensibly uniform just before reaching the fan located at the exit end of the diffuser. In order to secure uniformity in flow at the entrance into the mouth of the collector, a honeycomb structure was built in the delivery and composed of hexagonal cells. These are of bakelite molding tin, gilded at the edges to form a stiff and mass structure with thin walls and presenting minimum resistance to the flow of air. In order to collect the air at the entrance end of the diffuser, an inward projecting flaring cone was fitted.

The exhaust fan at the rear end of the diffuser is of the propeller type. The propeller fan is driven through a belt connection from a motor. Such changes in its speed as are desired in the program of propeller tests are obtained by changes in the size of the drive pulley on the motor shaft. The air speed for any given rate of tests corresponds sensibly constant air speed for any given run of tests and variable revolutions of the test propeller. This permits a constant motor speed for the fan propeller with variations in slip and other conditions secured by varying the revolutions of the model propeller.

No attempt will be made to give full structural details of the equipment. These must in any case be determined largely by special circumstances. It is interesting to note, however, that the room was made precisely airtight. The photographs accompanying this article indicate the nature of the pertinent apparatus. For entry and exit from the room an airlock is provided with doors closing on suitable packing strips and fitted with self-aligning hinges, allowing close contact between door and packing. With this general character of construction the experiment room was readily made substantially airtight and of a strength sufficient to carry the load due to the static pressure of the test air above that sustained in the chamber.

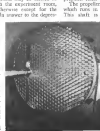
The special equipment for propeller testing comprises the following items:

1.—Thrust dynamometer. 2.—Torque dynamometer. 3.—Revolution counter. 4.—Air speed meter.

With reference to the thrust dynamometer, the general form of the apparatus was so designed as to place the propeller well forward of any sensible obstruction in the

path of the air stream, and even here the standard is given a sharp forward and after edge and streamlines form an angle to maintain any possible reaction on the propeller shaft.

The propeller is carried on the forward end of a shaft which runs in air guide, cylindrical, bronze bearings. This shaft is driven without longitudinal constraint through a yoke at the rear end having hardened steel flat tangential surfaces which engage with small ball-bearing steel rollers on a compression yoke carried by a level gear. This level gear runs on ball bearings outside the hull, which is hinged to provide freedom for movement with the propeller shaft. The driving motor is placed well out on the side, entirely out of the wind stream and drives the propeller shaft through level gears and the yoke mentioned. In this manner the propeller shaft is subjected to angular oscillation only rather than the motor drive is concerned. It is



Tab: The honeycomb inside end of the Stanford University wind tunnel.

Cross: Counter designed by Prof. E. P. Loring for measuring exact speed of test propellers.

Bottom: The vacuumant used to measure propeller torque.



entirely free to move longitudinally, as may be determined by other means.

These other forces are the thrust due to the propeller itself and some form of weighing or measuring device calculated to control and balance such thrust. To this end the propeller shaft is furnished with two ball-bearing clamps which connect through hardened steel knuckle joints with a vertical lever. This lever is actuated on a shaft which extends outside the standard, well beyond the air stream where it carries a horizontal scale beam with suitable weights.

An slanting weight in the casing serves to adjust the center of gravity of the device for uniformity of movement, and suitable stops are provided to limit the travel of the vertical axis, and hence the horizontal travel of the propeller shaft.

This arrangement insures a sensitive and reliable



Two views of the wind tunnel in the Stanford University aerodynamic laboratory in which research on 31 model airplane propellers was carried to completion.



means of measuring longitudinal forces developed by the propeller and without constriction due to the motor drive. The fractional forces measured when the disks in rotation are as small as it is negligible in comparison with the propeller forces involved, but even these, small as they are, may readily be eliminated by suitable calibrations.

The torque on the motor shaft is then measured by the tension of a spiral coiled spring. To measure this action two fine disks are fitted to the shaft, one on either side of the spring. These disks carry a narrow metal strip on the edge to serve as an electric contact. The contacts are electrically connected to the shaft and hence to each other. A hard brush riding on the face of the disk "A" is carried by the dynamometer frame. From this brush is led an electric conductor, first to a battery, then to a telephone receiver, and then to a second brush mounted over disk "B". If the centers of the disks pass under the brushes simultaneously the circuit will be closed for the instant and a click will be heard in the telephone receiver. If they do not pass simultaneously, the circuit will not be closed and no click heard. Suppose, then, with no torque on the shaft, the brush carrier at "B" is so adjusted as to give simultaneous contacts and a click is the receiver is heard, then with a load thrown on and a nonlinear torque the spring will exert, the contacts no longer will be simultaneous and no click will be heard. Then the brush holder at "B" can be moved around to a point where the contacts again will be simultaneous and the click will be heard again. The angle, through which the movable brush holder is turned is called then to compensate for the twist in the drive spring, will measure the angle of torsion and thus by suitable calibration is readily translated into torque values.

Propeller revolutions are counted by the movement on a drum, caused down by double screw-gear drive and so adjusted as diameter that one inch of travel on the face of a paper strip moved on the drum is just 50 revolutions. The drum is appropriately mounted on a frame with pencil carrier and with electric connection to a sounder or sounding pendulum. In operation the drum revolves and the pencil (or pen) riding on the paper draws a line with zig-zag introduced by the clock at second intervals. A given length of time is thus translated into revolutions per minute that readily determined.



Professor Leidy and two colleagues standing near the control panel of the wind tunnel

The ultimate means of air speed is based on the Pitot tube. Is the type used the static pressure is indicated through air hole of about 0.02 in. diameter. To avoid making a series of Pitot tube readings in connection with each experiment, however, a series of determinations were made between the depressions (differences in pressure outside and within the experimenting room), considered as an air pressure head, and the reading velocity at the propeller location within the experimenting room.

Concerning wind tunnels in general, as motor what the type, the air speed may be considered as direct. If the circuit is complete and such as to hold the air under restraint throughout the entire route, the closed character is evident. If, as in the Eiffel type, the air is deflected to one side and flows from the other, the return outside the tunnel may be viewed as through the room. The room may furthermore be considered as of any size, and in the extreme case it may be supposed infinite in dimension, in which case the air may be considered as delivered at one point and drawn in from another.

From this viewpoint, the problem is, therefore, that of establishing and maintaining a continuous flow of air in a closed circuit. The energy required will then be obviously the energy dissipated in the circuit. If no energy were dissipated the air circuit once set up would continue indefinitely. There it, however, a continual dissipation of energy in the form of turbulence due to surface resistance and unavoidable formation of eddies and turbulent losses. This loss the fan or its equivalent must supply.

The relation between the depression within the experimenting room and the velocity of the air stream was based on that also determinations of velocity and momentary balance measures of the difference of pressure acting as an air head. Numerous determinations of this relation were made at the start of the work. Also, it should be noted that when a model propeller is in operation with a velocity sufficient to give a positive slip and hence an additional accelerating effect on the air, there is an effect an additional fan in the system and hence one must expect an increase of velocity of air stream.

This effect on the air stream was found to be twofold. (1) Local and immediately in front of the model pro-



Top: A model mounted in the Stanford University wind tunnel. Bottom: The device used to measure the velocity of the air stream by comparison of atmospheric pressure within and without the tunnel. The rolls (load is coal oil and weigh less than 0.01 lb. per sq. ft.).

pel, where there will be combination of the air as it approaches the propeller and (2) around the complete local influence of the model propeller where there will be an increase in air stream velocity due to the greater amount of energy supplied in the circuit and a corresponding reduction in pressure in the experimenting room with consequent general increase in the speed of inflow. It was, therefore, important to ascertain whether the general velocity of air stream, as indicated by that of the cylindrical shell about the propeller, will remained in the same relation to the fall of pressure within the experimenting room.

Careful and repeated tests showed that this was the case and it was, therefore, assumed that the reversed action of the large fan propeller and the model propeller was to produce a velocity of air stream in the cylindrical shell surrounding the model, standing in the given and fixed surface in the depressions created in the room by the point action of the two propellers. The velocity of air stream then corresponds to the inside air stream flowing around and outside the propeller in the case of an airplane in free flight, and in, therefore, taken as corresponding to the velocity of flight through the air.

Similarly the local result immediately in front of the model propeller is to be taken as similar to the local acceleration of the air immediately in front of the airplane propeller, causing a local flow of air aft to meet the forward moving propeller.

With a model propeller in operation and throwing off a slipstream of pronounced velocity, the air stream around the entire section forward of and about the propeller was subjected to survey by Pitot tube. The results indicated a relatively sharp break in the influence of the propeller close about the tips of the blades, and that the size of the slipstream proper at and just in



diameter of the propeller was practically determined by the diameter swept by the tips of the blades. The velocities in the cylindrical ring lying outside the blade tips were also compared with the depression within the chamber and found to agree as previously stated. These tests indicated that the special influence of the propeller in directing the distribution of velocities through the air stream extends to but a slight distance beyond the circle swept by the tips of the blades. The indications of this test, therefore, support fully the anticipated relations between diameter of propeller and of air stream.

Tractors in Airport Building

years. However, there was still much to be done when the city engineers began the construction of the airport, for the site was covered with so earth and ash. The filling of the depression, installing a drainage system, placing two creeks underground and the building of roads and bridges was a tremendous undertaking.

But as less than seven months, the first task, consisting of about one-half of the 630 acre field, was opened. In this work the tractor played a large part.

Much of the preliminary filling of the low lands was accomplished by hydraulic sliding, and it was on this soft footing that four tractors equipped with "bull-dozers" went to work, smoothing the hydraulic fill. Then, large quantities of dry fill were brought in by automobile truck and were spread out evenly by the tractor. The tractor was the only logical thing to use there, be-



"Caterpillar" tractors at Newark. Top: Building the Newark Airport. Center: Leveling the runway at Oakland Municipal Airport. Bottom: Road-building machinery at Oakland after trucks had bogged down.

WITH the growing value of traffic and the ever increasing size of passenger-carrying planes, the building and maintenance of airports is becoming more and more expensive. Not only must the runways be kept in perfect condition, but the entire field should be firm and level to permit safe landings and take-offs anywhere. This is true of emergency landing areas, as well as all other fields.

Constant care is necessary to maintain any level area of ground. Dunes, from time to time, and the natural settling of the earth will cause depressions to appear. An ungraded dirt surface probably is affected to the greatest extent, and perhaps one of the most striking examples of this is a dirt road, which is not graded frequently enough. However, an island, a embankment or a solid area also requires attention. Realizing that, the operators of some of the larger airports throughout the country are constantly grading and rolling their fields in an effort to provide a smooth surface as possible, and in this work, the tractor seems to have come to the fore as one of the most adaptable pieces of machinery for farming power.

Taking examples from the road builders, the tractor first appeared upon the scene when engineers adapted agricultural, road building and construction tools to airport construction as a means of cutting costs and speeding the work. In two outstanding instances, the construction of the Newark Metropolitan Airport at Newark, N. J., and that at Oakland Municipal Airport at Oakland, Calif., track-type tractors, because of the ability to operate in soft ground or mud, furnished the motive power for these devices almost entirely. The sites of both fields were formerly almost entirely flat tracts of marshland.

At Newark, the work of releveling the swampy lands to the east of the city had been going on for a number of



Plane moving dirt with the use of tractors and "crawler" impact in the construction of a North Carolina airport. Left: A tractor filling in a low spot in building the Detroit Municipal airport.

years the ground was extremely soft and uneven. The trucks in bringing in the dry fill often became mired and had to be pulled out by the tractors. In constructing the drainage and sewer system, the tractors also proved invaluable for use in building 43-ft trenches, and the roads were constructed with their aid.

The same thing was true in the construction of the Oakland airport. When the work was started, the site was nothing but a swamp. Homes could scarcely work at all, and the use of trucks was impossible until the tractors had provided a more firm footing. Two meters were employed at first, and then four. These machines, pushing bulldozers and afterward was speed and leveled with a special road-runner off into the depression. The land was plowed, and afterward was speed and leveled with a special road-building grader. After that it was rolled by the tractors. In addition, these machines were used for laying supplies, backfilling trenches, meeting signal towers, and for strutting wire and cables.

In the building of other airports, too, the tractor has played a large part. At the Springfield-Agnew field, which is located about five miles west of the center of Springfield, Mass., tractors were used for pulling down wires, spreading stumps and strutting bulldozers, as well as for leveling and rolling the land and other work in connection with the transformation of a tobacco plantation into an airport. In Detroit, Mich., tractors and trucks were used for changing a garbage dump into an airfield field in much the same manner that they were used at Newark, and at Chicago, Ill., tractors loaded, tolled and spread cinders after accomplishing the preliminary construction work.

At these airports and others, the tractors are still in service and are used constantly in maintaining smooth surfaces on the runways and other portions of the field. In fact, tractors are now an article of standard equipment at every airport. In many cases, cities that are operating airfield fields have purchased and assigned tractors for permanent use in the upkeep of their fields, so great is the importance of the tractor in the maintenance of an airport regarded. In this connection, it might be mentioned that large "Caterpillar" tractors are one of the most popular makes for use in airport work.

Aside from the usual construction and maintenance work, however, the tractor is finding many applications as the modern air terminal. It is recognized that a plane

on the ground is unserviceable at its best. With the engine running, it is possible to tow a plane into position, but the radius in turning is large and a "blast of gas" is necessary. This is often highly undesirable when there are spectators and passengers nearby, and at many airports small tractors are now used to move the planes about.

For this work also, the track-type tractor seems to be the most popular, because of its extended traction on almost any surface and its remarkable power. At the Oakland Municipal Airport, a small Caterpillar "30" is used regularly for moving the large transport planes. The plane is towed by the tractor by means of a line attached to the landing gear, while steering is accom-



A "Caterpillar 10" towing a Western Express transport at Oakland Municipal Airport.

plished by means of a small "dolly" placed under the tail skid. By this system, it is possible to jockey a plane into any desired position. It is also proving reliable for moving planes about inside the hangars and for loading the large baggage doors.

Caterpillar tractors also are providing the motive power for operating snow plows during the winter months at a number of airports in the northern section of the country. The traction of this type of tractor again is invaluable, and, in many instances, airport officials have reported that they have been able to keep ahead of a drifting blizzard with a snow plow attached to tractor, so that it has been possible to resume service immediately after the storm. Another use of the tractor has been developed likewise with the mounting of movable floodlights on them.

Cross-License Agreement of Dec. 31, 1928

By JOSEPH L. MCMULLEN

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in charge of War Department Patent*

AFTER nearly 10 yr. of effort owners of aircraft patents have revised and renewed the cross-license agreement, first made during the World War.

With the close of the war period and the resulting curtailment in the manufacture of aircraft except for certain limited orders by a few government departments, the real necessity for the agreement practically ceased. The years following the War until the aviation gear driven by lightweight successful fighters were later years for plane manufacturers. Indeed, many of the corporations engaged in building aircraft went through bankruptcy, but while there still remained a necessity for a cross-license agreement there was not that cry that became so apparent immediately following Lewis' flight.

From the successful flight of the Wright Brothers, and the mention to some of Patent No. 821,323 on May 22, 1906, development of airplanes and the art of flying was rapid. By the end of 1916 considerable progress had been made in this country and much more in Europe. A few other patents had been issued. Notable among these patents were those to Bell, et al., No. 1,251,020, issued Dec. 8, 1911, and Christy, No. 1,095,548, issued May 5, 1914. In two acts, Wright Company vs. Herwig, Circuit Court, 211 Fed. 354 and 204 Fed. 307, the court held that the Wright patent was the pioneer and was infringed by the Bell patent. That, of course, is not to be taken to mean that the Bell patent was invalid.

In 1916 the Wrights' Court, owner of the Wright patent, placed, notified prospective manufacturers of airplanes of the existence of patent No. 821,323, and suggested contracts for royalties for its use, which were prospective, but clearly within the patent monopoly.

In January, 1917, both the War and Navy Departments, anticipating any entry into the war then in progress in Europe, and the consequent use of a large number of planes, endorsed the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics of the situation and requested that the matter be looked into with a view of determining a solution of the situation in the then state of the law (Art. of Jan. 28, 1917). The Patent Office Committee for Aeronautics made a careful study of the situation and determined that, in view of the fact that considerable litigation was available to determine the prospective rights of the patentees, necessarily resulting in the embroilment of the Army and Navy in trying to settle their plans for national defense, some form of inter-licensing would help the situation. It must be remembered that at this time the Art. of Jan. 1, 1918, was not in existence, and there was serious doubt whether the Art. of Jan. 28, 1918, was destroyed by the act of January 6 by a patent agent a contractor for the Government. Through the efforts of the National Advisory Committee for Aero-

nautics the principal patentees of airplane inventions consented to cross-license each other. For this purpose the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association was established and the so-called cross-license agreement of July 29, 1917, formed.

The first cross-license agreement was that the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association, Inc., entered into a contract, July 29, 1917, with various persons, firms and corporations, called subscribers, who became stockholders. The contract recited that the several parties were interested in the manufacture, sale and use of airplanes, and desirous of promoting the industry and advancement of the art. It was recognized that the development and advancement in the industry had been retarded by reason of the existence of certain United States patents, claimed as base, upon which acts had been brought or threatened for infringement, royalties and damages, and that it was desirable to prevent and avoid litigation and give to all subscribers the right to make, use and sell airplanes embodying the inventions of each.

As a result of this cross-license agreement the holders of patents relating to aircraft, pooled their patent interests on a fixed royalty of \$500 to be paid into an association and distributed in accordance with the proportionate contribution value to the industry. Subsequent to this arrangement, on April 19, 1918, the agreement was changed and the royalty rate fixed at \$200 for each share.

Conditions since the close of the war, would not a real live and effective cross-license agreement, have not been satisfactory either to the Government or to the Association. Not now, together with the many contracts to insure the necessity for an effective agreement to promote and develop the industry and encourage invention in the field of aeronautics makes the new agreement imperative.

The cross-license agreement, which has now been made by those persons in the industry and which became effective as of Dec. 31, 1928, has met with the approval of the War and Navy Departments of the Government. This is best evidenced by the fact that a contract was concluded by these two Departments and the Manufacturers' Aircraft Association which went into effect as of seven days after the revised cross-license agreement.

This new agreement provides for a reduction of the royalty to be paid by the subscribers of the Association to as low as \$25.00 per plane. It will be apparent that in forcing this rate a decided discount was made from the figure adopted in the original agreement and in a very marked reduction from the very war time rate. In fixing the royalty at a lower figure, manufacturers are thus encouraged to invest the greater portion of the profit in plans.

Twenty-five dollars per plane is, of course, a minimum royalty, the rates being arranged in a graduated scale according to the proportionate value of the plane—the

maximum royalty allowed being not more than \$200. The primary function of the Association was to act as an agent for the parties to the cross-license agreement in securing preferred licenses and patents and in negotiating royalties, and appearing through its board of directors one of the arbitrators to pass upon the value of patents acquired subsequent to the execution of the agreement.

In the Minutes before the Executive Committee in the House of Representatives in 1924, much was said about the desirability of the cross-license agreement but the final recommendations of that Committee clearly indicated that the Association was not a substitution in restraint of trade within the meaning of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law and Clayton Act.

Among the criticisms it was alleged that several separate clauses of the cross-license agreement, and that the agreement itself actually operated to the detriment of the monopolization, the prohibition of airplanes in the United States and excludes all other persons from manufacturing them, and will operate to defeat the purpose and intent of the patent laws and to enslave aviation corporations from liability for infringing said patents.

The authority for the patent status of the United States is contained in Article I, Section 8, Clause 8, of the Constitution which empowers Congress to promote the progress of science and useful arts by securing, for limited time to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries.

Congress has exercised this power continuously since the first patent act of 1790 (Chap. 7, Sec. 1, 1 Stat. 109) which contained upon the patentee the same exclusive right and liberty to make, construct, using and vend to others to be used, the said invention or discovery. In the patent act of 1793 (Chap. 3, Sec. 1, 1 Stat. 134) the words were the words. In that of 1836 (Chap. 357, Sec. 4, 5 Stat. 117) they were changed to the full and exclusive rights and liberty of making, using and vending to others to be used, the said invention and discovery.

The present patent statute (Art. of July 8, 1909, c. 203, Sec. 23, Rev. Stat. 4884, U. S. Comp. Stat. 1916, Section 9429), provides:

"Every patent shall be granted to the patentee, his heirs, or assigns, for the term of seventeen years, the exclusive right to make, use and vend the invention so discovered throughout the United States and the territories thereof referring to the perpetuity for the particular thereof."

The leading case, supporting and controlling the construction and status of the right and the character of the monopoly granted by a patent, and indicates that such a monopoly, having as it does from the Constitution, is not to be lightly set aside by subsequent legislation. Such statutes and the irretrievable damage referring to the perpetuity for the particular thereof.

It may be well, however, to consider what rights are conferred upon a patentee. In the words of the Supreme Court, the nature of the rights is, of course, the law and it is necessary to look for the policy of a statute, and not in cases outside of it—to its circumstances of expediency and to supposed purposes not expressed by the words. The patent law is the expression of the policy and it may be supposed that all that was deemed necessary to accomplish and safeguard it must have been stated and provided for.

In other words, the language of complete monopoly has been employed, and it is not a mere word of art. It was given for a violation of the right a remedy in equity was given as early as 1819. There has been no qualification, however, of the right, except as hereinafter stated. An exception which shows the extent of the right is the right to explicitly gives and so complete that it would

seem to need no further explanation than the word of the statute. It has, however, received explanation in a number of cases which bring out clearly the various strands by which it is woven into the fabric of the law. These cases declare that it is necessary to read the law that it did not have before, and that the only effect of the patent is to restrain others from manufacturing and using that which is covered by the patent. It is further said in that case, that the inventor could have kept his discovery to himself, but to induce a disclosure of it Congress has, by its legislation, made in pursuance of the Constitution, guaranteeing to him as exclusive right to it for a limited time, the privilege of the public to protect him in this monopoly—not to give him a law which he did not have before but only to separate to him an exclusive use for a few years.

What interest, if any, the anti-trust acts have upon the monopoly of a valid United States patent, and the extent to which the patent monopoly can be extended, if at all, so as to effect things not included within the claims of the patent, has also been considered upon numerous occasions by the Supreme Court, and the validity of the cross-license agreement is thought to be clearly justified by the following statement of that Court:

"That the statute clearly does not refer to that kind of contract of restraint which may or may not arise from reasonable and legal conditions imposed upon the owner or licensee of a patent by the owner himself, restricting the terms upon which the article may be used and the price to be demanded therefor, but to a contract of restraint which is not a mere device to avoid or evade the operation of the law."

Although the nature of the patent right has been frequently under consideration by the Supreme Court and various in connection therewith have in several instances been declared void, for attempting to extend its monopoly to matters not therein contained and to require considerations in violation of the general law, as well as the anti-trust statute, there has been no case in which it has been held that the right of the patentee to determine whether or not he shall license another has been in any way impaired, and restrictions placed upon the exercise of a license, not in consonance with the rule or limit of an article contained in the patented invention, certainly may be very broad in scope.

In the new cross-license agreement of Dec. 31, 1928, the parties have stated that it is their desire to bring together the owners of aircraft patents under a large common umbrella in order to prevent litigation or threatened litigation in the future, and to give to all the subscribers the right to manufacture, sell and use airplanes embodying the inventions of each of the subscribers and to that end to use licenses to each other with respect to patents now owned and controlled by the subscribers and as to patents which they may acquire in the future. The cross-license agreement provides that the subscriber shall not grant licenses to others on most matters in which the subscribers entered under the cross-license agreement to each other and also provides for arbitration of claims and disputes and means for the means of those desiring to withdraw.

As viewed at this time it is thought that the new agreement is in the public interest, and that the Government in general will be of relatively much more importance and far reaching in its effect toward the advancement of aeronautics than was the somewhat similar cross-license agreement in the aeronautics industry. That the Government will not have on timidity in entering into this new agreement is thought to be well demonstrated by the attitude taken by Congress and the action of the Government in dealing with the Association and especially in the view of the new act of law by the Supreme Court on such construction.

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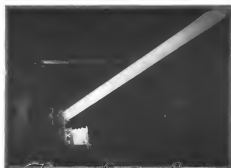
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 They play through the days with a man
 put there,
 And up above the cloud-line and down in pools
 The very blackness needs to be alive, glass
 Shift and alive in a sky camp down,
 They flash through the sun's angle, around
 Of late space and a dim remembrance
 Of the morning, twilight, and even and night

Let the world slide down and the waves fall,
And the monkey walk over my shoulder,
Let the world walk alongside and where and
and

They are the things that the women want
They eat with a confidence delicious,
Squally winging them from point to point
Of the great wonder? It's always for
When the answer mouth and nose and all

Then each man bowed down and said: *For
 blessing and company, they readily came
 from the other world, both good and
 Of company come in the best "up there,"
 A man and a woman, valiant and just
 Rightly and surely they gain their good
 And so gain the easy company
 When the company needs and men and all*

LITERATURE

"To the emperor that made me and me
and all."

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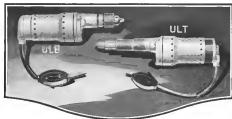
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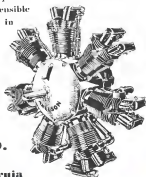


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